

Advances in Clayff Molecular Simulation of Layered and Nanoporous Materials and Their Aqueous Interfaces

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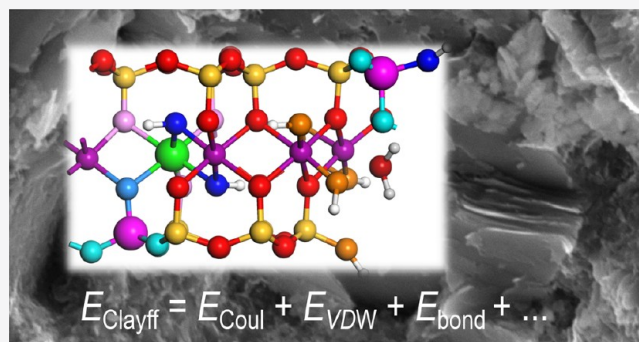
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ABSTRACT: As a general-purpose force field for molecular simulations of layered materials and their fluid interfaces, Clayff continues to see broad usage in atomistic computational modeling for numerous geoscience and materials science applications due to its (1) success in predicting properties of bulk nanoporous materials and their interfaces, (2) transferability to a range of layered and nanoporous materials, and (3) simple functional form which facilitates incorporation into a variety of simulation codes. Here, we review applications of Clayff to model bulk phases and interfaces not included in the original parameter set and recent modifications for modeling surface terminations such as hydroxylated nanoparticle edges. We conclude with a discussion of expectations for future developments.



1. INTRODUCTION

Among the most innovative advances in physical chemistry over the last 50 years has been the development of molecular models for evaluating the structure, properties, dynamics, and behavior of chemical systems.^{1,2} Not only have computational molecular simulation methods—including quantum-based approaches such as molecular orbital theory and density functional theory (DFT) and classical-based energy force fields—been successfully used to investigate molecules or molecular clusters, they have also been very effective in providing accurate models of layered inorganic materials, including clay minerals. The first research articles involving atomic simulations of clay minerals were published over 30 years ago,^{3–5} and this specialized area of research has greatly expanded with advances in computational power and the availability of user-friendly software.

Clay minerals are layered hydrated aluminosilicates comprised of coordinated tetrahedral (T) silica sheets and octahedral (O) alumina sheets. These basic sheets are combined into TO and TOT layers, often with hydroxylated or hydrated interlayer regions. These layers stack to form nanoparticle platelets with dimensions on the order of hundreds of nanometers or a few microns for synthetic and natural samples, respectively. Layer charge can occur by substitution of Al³⁺ (or Fe³⁺) for the tetrahedral Si⁴⁺ or Mg²⁺ (or Li⁺) for octahedral Al³⁺ which results in negatively charged clay layers with charge-balancing hydrated cations, like Na⁺ and Ca²⁺, occurring in the interlayer. Depending on the net layer charge, TOT layers can swell in aqueous environments, resulting in nanoconfined fluids relevant to numerous environmental and industrial processes. Swelling clay minerals, known collectively as smectites, include Na-montmorillonite (idealized formula Na_{0.5}(Al_{1.5}Mg_{0.5})-

Si₄O₁₀(OH)₂·nH₂O) being one of the most common phyllosilicates. Figure 1 provides an example of Na-montmorillonite (Figure 1a), along with other layered or nanoporous materials, that can be accurately modeled using Clayff potentials.

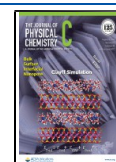
Kaolinite, Al₂Si₂O₅(OH)₄, is a non-swelling TO clay mineral having no layer charge but an interlayer characterized by hydrogen bonding of hydroxyl groups between the alumina O sheet and the basal oxygens of the silica T sheet, to form TO–TO layers (Figure 1b). Many other clay minerals can be found in soils and sediments across many geological and environmental conditions and can be classified by elemental composition, layer structure, layer charge, and morphology. Layered double hydroxides (LDHs), also known as “anionic clays”, which will be discussed briefly in this Review, are similar to smectite clay minerals but have hydroxylated octahedral O sheets with structural cationic substitutions that result in positive layer charge and an interlayer region with hydrated anions (e.g., Cl[–], CO₃^{2–}) rather than cations. Hydrotalcite, Mg₆Al₂(OH)₁₆CO₃·n(H₂O), is a representative of the LDH type of clay minerals (Figure 1c).

Because of the necessary large size of the simulation cells for many clay mineral systems, the number of atoms required for an accurate simulation ranges from many hundreds to several

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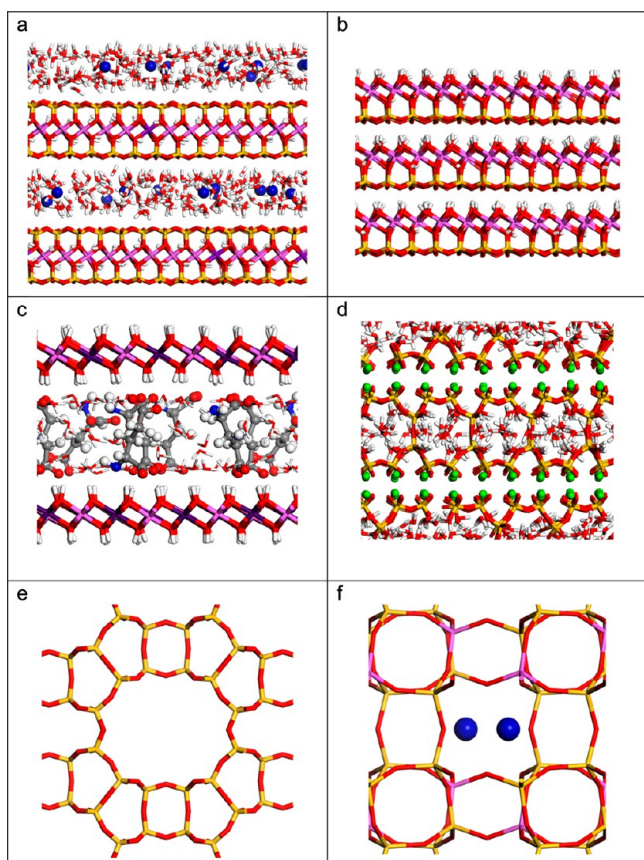


Figure 1. Models of layered and other phases that can be simulated using Clayff: (a) Na-montmorillonite (TOT clay mineral); (b) kaolinite (TO clay mineral); (c) hydrotalcite (LDH) with interlayer gluconate; (d) tobermorite, basis for the calcium silicate hydrate model (C-S-H); (e) endmember mordenite (zeolite); (f) K-feldspar (framework aluminosilicate).

millions in order to properly capture the unique composition, morphology, edge structure, and interlayer chemistry. Although quantum-based simulation methods have become relatively common among computational chemists for investigating clay mineral structures and their reactivity, computational resources continue to limit the number of atoms that can be incorporated in such intensive electronic-structure-based simulations and the time scales of the dynamic processes that can be studied by such methods. Therefore, the practitioner typically relies on a set of empirically derived interatomic potentials to accurately evaluate the interactions among the constituent atoms in the computer model.

A variety of interatomic potentials suitable for modeling clay minerals are found in the literature, and they typically involve analytical expressions describing the potential energy as a function of atomic distances, angles, or other geometric parameters.^{6–8} Determination of the total potential energy of the chemical system involves the summation of Coulombic (electrostatic), van der Waals (VDW), and related nonbonded interactions with contributions from explicit bonded interactions:

$$E_{\text{Total}} = E_{\text{Coul}} + E_{\text{VDW}} + E_{\text{Bond}} + \dots \quad (1)$$

Additional potential energy terms representing hydrostatic pressure, directional stresses, electric fields, and other intensive conditions can be incorporated. This summation would also

include any interlayer ions and water molecules associated with the layered material or interface.

As an example of a standard energy calculation for a material, the computer would evaluate the Coulombic interaction energy for all atoms with each other based on their partial charge assignments, which are typically part of the force field. Dispersive or VDW interactions, which are most effective at small atomic distances, would be similarly summed. Explicitly bonded components such as hydroxyl groups and interlayer water molecules would contribute a destabilizing energy based on their deviation from equilibrium bond distances and bond angles. Validation and accuracy of these force fields—as collections of interatomic potentials are commonly referred to—will depend on the quality of the structural data, physical properties, spectroscopic data, and quantum chemical methods used to derive the best fit of the empirical parameters for each interatomic potential of the force field.

2. ORIGINS OF CLAYFF

Clayff⁹ was originally developed to provide a simple and straightforward set of potentials based primarily on the nonbonded potentials described by E_{Coul} (eq 2) and E_{VDW} (eq 3)

$$E_{\text{Coul}} = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{i \neq j} \frac{q_i q_j}{r_{ij}} \quad (2)$$

where e is the fundamental charge of an electron, q_i and q_j are partial atomic charges, and r_{ij} is the distance between atoms i and j . A set of optimal and consistent values of atomic charges, based on local coordination, was derived for Clayff using electron density distributions obtained from DFT for experimental unit cell structures of a number of well-characterized simple metal oxides and hydroxides and for various molecular clusters involving hydrated metal ions. Bond stretch and three-body angle bends are also incorporated in Clayff to describe the potential energy E_{Bond} associated with explicit bonds, such as those of water molecules and hydroxyl groups.

A Lennard-Jones (L-J) potential, used to represent E_{VDW} , combines the short-range repulsion associated with atom-atom overlap and the short-range attraction associated with electron dispersion

$$E_{\text{VDW}} = \sum_{i \neq j} 4\epsilon_{ij} \left[\left(\frac{\sigma_{ij}}{r_{ij}} \right)^{12} - \left(\frac{\sigma_{ij}}{r_{ij}} \right)^6 \right] \quad (3)$$

where ϵ_{ij} is the depth of the potential energy well and σ_{ij} is the zero-crossing distance for the energy. ϵ_{ij} and σ_{ij} are treated as fitting parameters for the interactions between atoms i and j . For simplicity, L-J parameters in Clayff are presented for interactions between identical atom types ($i = j$), known as diagonal terms. Interaction parameters between different atom types ($i \neq j$), referred to as off-diagonal terms, are obtained using a combination of arithmetic and geometric (Lorentz-Berthelot) combining rules:⁶

$$\sigma_{ij} = \frac{\sigma_i + \sigma_j}{2} \quad \epsilon_{ij} = (\epsilon_i \epsilon_j)^{1/2} \quad (4)$$

Examples of Clayff atom types for clay minerals and edges are shown in Figure 2.

Fundamental to the parametrization of Clayff potentials is the use of equivalent VDW parameters for all oxygen atoms based on the L-J parameters for the oxygen atom of the SPC (simple

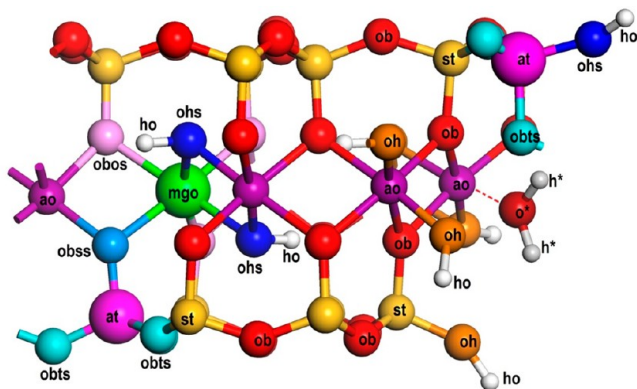


Figure 2. A fragment of a montmorillonite model with atom type parametrization according to Clayff. The complete list of atom types and their parameters is presented in Table S1. The (110) edge of the montmorillonite TOT layer is depicted on the right of the model.

point charge) water model.¹⁰ This approach suggests that VDW parameters are the same for all clay oxygens including framework and edge oxygens, hydroxyl oxygens, and, of course, water oxygens. Only the atomic charges of these various oxygen types are different, dependent on the local bonding and coordination environment. Bond stretches associated with water molecules and hydroxyl groups are represented in Clayff by a harmonic potential where potential energy contributions increase as the square of the deviation of the bond length from its equilibrium value. Alternatively, such bond stretches can be described more accurately by a Morse potential, as was done for hydroxyl bonds in several clay minerals.¹¹

Clayff has significantly contributed to improving bulk structure simulations of clay minerals and other environmental materials, and to predicting the structural and dynamical behavior of hydrated clay interlayers and interfacial systems. The success of Clayff lies in the balanced combination of functional simplicity, relative accuracy, and transferability of the original parametrization of the force field with the fitting to structural data for simple well-characterized metal oxides and hydroxides. Furthermore, Clayff parameters are consistent with standard models of water molecules and with respective models of various aqueous cations, anions, and organic species. Physical properties are well reproduced in Clayff simulations, including most second-derivative (of energy) properties such as elastic constants, bulk moduli, dielectric constants, and vibrational spectra (Figure 3).⁹

As originally designed, Clayff excels in atomistic simulations of environmental systems involving the hydration of clay minerals and related phases. Molecular simulation studies, using Clayff potentials involving clay minerals in energy and environment applications, include oil and gas extraction and the sequestration of CO₂ and radionuclides in a variety of host materials.^{12–18} Additionally, Clayff has been successfully used in the simulation of materials including zeolite and glass phases that are of particular use in technological and industrial applications.^{19–22}

This Review Article provides a broad summary of Clayff and its use in the analysis of clay minerals, other clay-related and nanoporous materials, and their interfaces with aqueous solutions and other important fluids. In particular, this summary addresses recent modifications and advances in the use of Clayff since it was first introduced to the scientific community almost 20 years ago. The original authors, numerous collaborators, and

other researchers have combined to improve Clayff in both practical implementations and novel applications. We first present general comments on Clayff and review the improvements made to the original interatomic potentials. We also discuss recent modifications for incorporating Clayff in the simulation of clay edge sites and how to properly implement these changes in standard molecular simulation software (Supporting Information).

Clayff was originally designed to be a general force field for the simulation of clay minerals and to have full atomic flexibility in energy optimizations and molecular dynamics (MD) simulations. Implicit in this approach was that simulations would approach accurate minimum energy configurations without the need for constrained atomic motions or fixed lattice parameters. Furthermore, dynamics simulations of aqueous interfaces involving clay surfaces, including interlayer regions of clays, would properly account for conservation of energy and momentum across the interface—for example, the interactions of clay surfaces with interlayer and interfacial cations and water molecules and their impact on diffusional transport and vibrational/librational modes.

It is also noteworthy that Clayff incorporates primarily nonbonded potentials whereby most metal–oxygen interactions in the crystal structure are assumed to be quasi-ionic and described simply by a combination of Coulombic and L-J potentials. Only hydroxyls and water molecules in Clayff incorporate bond stretching and bond-angle bending terms, using either harmonic or Morse potentials. The implementation of nonbonded potentials is helpful for describing some bond-breaking and bond-forming M–O reactions which may occur at elevated temperatures, as expected in some molten and quenched glass materials involving coordination changes.^{23,24} However, such reactivity of clay minerals was not an objective in the original Clayff development, especially since the parametrization of the potentials was based on room-temperature structures of the simple oxide and hydroxide phases.

There are other force fields that have been introduced for the simulation of layered minerals.^{7,25–31} Some of the early efforts in developing force fields did not treat the clay framework as fully flexible and typically relied on rigid or constrained atom arrangements. Several of the force fields developed later use a bonded form of potential to describe explicit M–O bonds in the crystal structure, and thereby focus on improving vibrational properties associated with the simulation. Other force fields have incorporated polarizable bonds to better reproduce electronic structure and the charge distribution among atoms.^{32–35} As discussed in detail below, several studies have chosen to make modifications to Clayff potentials to significantly improve the accuracy for one specific class of layered or nanostructured materials. In general, each force field has its own strengths and each, including Clayff, has its own imperfections. Nonetheless, caution must be exercised when software choice and convenience preclude accuracy in the selection of an energy force field for investigating a particular material system.

3. APPLICATIONS OF CLAYFF

Clayff has been cited nearly fifteen hundred times since the parameters were first published in 2004. Clayff was initially used to simulate bulk crystal phases and aqueous interfaces of layered minerals, but an inspection of citing articles reveals that it has been used for a variety of other applications,³⁶ including other oxide phases, mineral–organic interactions, including contaminants, hydrocarbons,¹² natural organic matter (NOM),^{37,38}

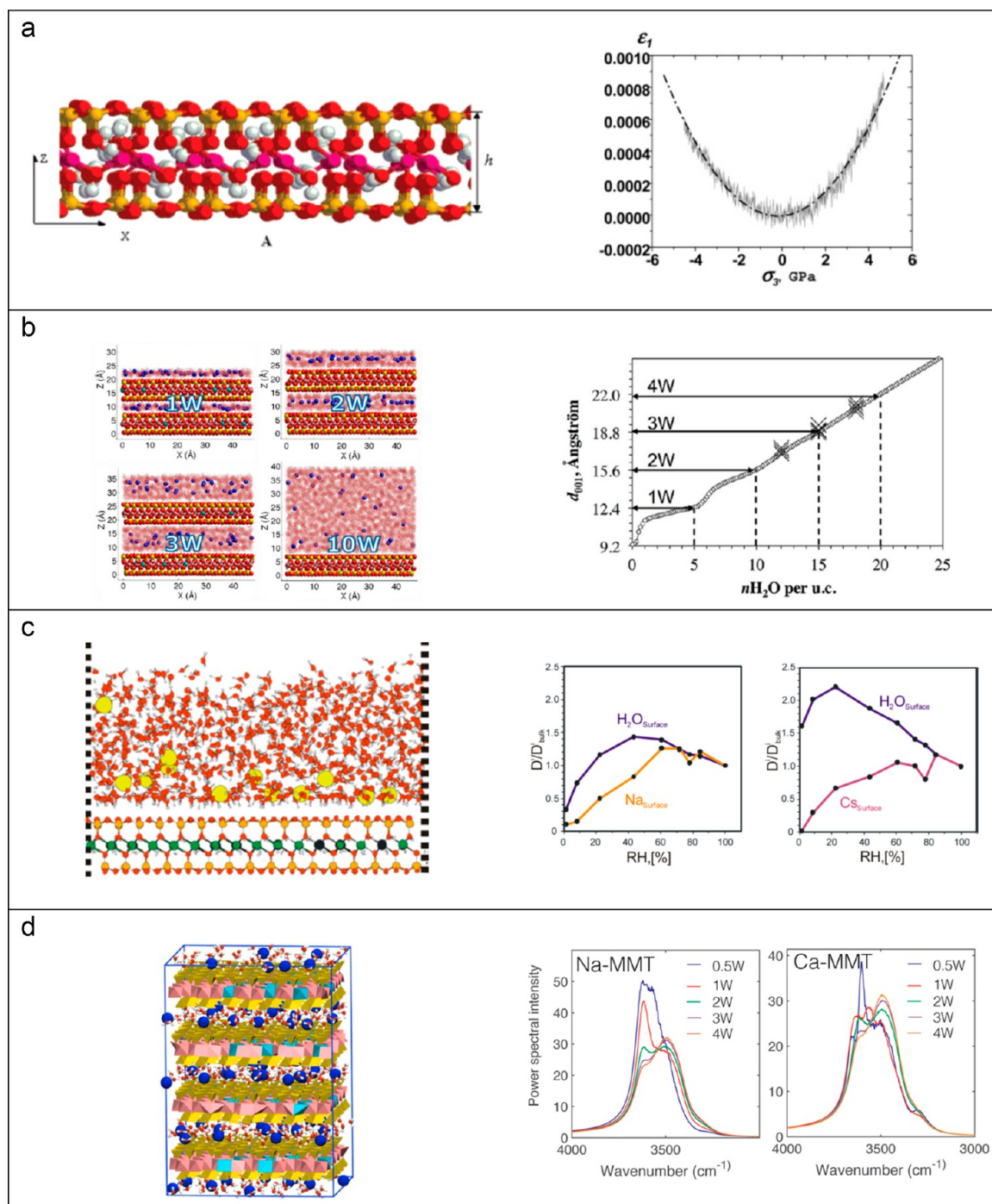


Figure 3. Material properties obtained from MD simulations using Clayff: (a) variation of pyrophyllite elastic constant under uniaxial deformation transverse to the TOT layer (z -direction);⁵² (b) comparison between simulation (lines) and experiment (crosses) of basal (001) d -spacing of Na-montmorillonite with increasing water content from one water layer (1W) to four water layers (4W);⁵³ (c) simulated diffusion coefficients relative to bulk values for water and cations at an external surface of montmorillonite;⁵⁴ (d) simulated vibrational spectrum (O–H stretch region) of Na- and Ca-montmorillonite at different water contents.⁵⁵ Images reprinted with permission from the cited references: (a) Copyright 2008 American Chemical Society; (b) Copyright 2014 American Chemical Society; (c) Copyright 2013 American Chemical Society; (d) Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society.

biomolecules,^{39–41} and polymers.⁴² Clayff has also been used to model mineral phases and interfaces beyond the original training set.^{43–47} Note that the following discussion is a nonexhaustive list; Clayff continues to be used and adapted into new applications. We refer the reader to previous review papers on molecular simulation of layered materials.^{15,36,48–51}

Figure 3 highlights several applications using Clayff to examine the properties of clay minerals. These include simulations of the mechanical response of a montmorillonite nanoparticle,⁵² the hydration and swelling behavior of Na-montmorillonite at various interlayer water contents,⁵³ the diffusion rates of water and cations as impacted by the clay surface,⁵⁴ and the vibrational behavior of water–siloxane

interactions at various water loadings of a Na-montmorillonite.⁵⁵

3.1. Layered Silicates. Many atomistic simulations have contributed new insights to the structure and dynamics of clay minerals, their interlayers, and associated nanopores. Montmorillonite, as the most common swelling clay of the smectite mineral group, has been the subject of many of these efforts.^{9,53,56–62} Successful Clayff-based models of montmorillonite have been developed to evaluate crystalline structure, hydration, interlayer structure, interlayer cation environments, swelling behavior, adsorption, and diffusion processes. Many of these efforts are related to understanding model systems for environmental applications and to advancing chemical and nuclear waste remediation and repository methods. Montmorillonite with highly expanded interlayers provides a unique model for understanding nanopores and the impact of multiple charged surfaces.

Models of kaolinite developed using Clayff potentials have also contributed to understanding TO clay structures^{9,63,64} and mechanisms of cation adsorption.^{65–67} Kaolinite provides two unique surface environments, where the siloxane sheet is relatively hydrophobic in contrast to the Al-octahedral sheet, which is terminated by hydroxyl groups and is hydrophilic in nature.

Even though Clayff was primarily developed for robust atomistic simulations of clay minerals and their aqueous interfaces, it was almost immediately applied to a broader range of materials, such as layered double hydroxides,^{68–70} zeolites,¹⁹ and mineral phases of cement,⁴³ which, similar to clay minerals, are characterized by incompletely or poorly characterized crystal structures and composition, often have large unit cells, have low symmetry, and frequently occur as only submicron size particles.^{43,60,71,72} In fact, the first attempt of applying a Clayff-based approach in such simulations featured hydrocalumite (Friedel's salt), known in cement chemistry as the AFm phase.⁷³ The early models of layered materials, sometimes involving a few unit cells, have evolved to greater dimensions with more complex structure and chemistry. This is, in part, due to access to greater computational power but also to the simplicity of Clayff potentials and their ability to scale with system size.

3.2. Cement Phases. Over the last 10–15 years, Clayff has been successfully tested in numerous molecular simulations of cementitious materials.^{43,70–72,74,75} Despite its simplicity, Clayff was proven to quite accurately reproduce the crystallographic parameters of such cement-related phases as tobermorite, ettringite, hydrocalumite, tricalcium aluminate, kanemite, and gypsum. In addition to structural properties, Clayff has been shown to reproduce quite accurately the energetics of swelling for a wide range of cement-related silicates and hydroxides.^{43,74} Not unexpectedly, the MD-simulated energetics of water adsorption in Na- and K-kanemite, [(Na,K)HSi₂O₅·nH₂O], is in very good agreement with the observed X-ray diffraction, water adsorption, TGA/DTA, and ²⁹Si NMR data.⁷² Kanemite-like local structures represent a realistic model of gels produced during the so-called alkali-silica-reaction (ASR) in concrete that occurs primarily due to incorporation of H₂O molecules between silicate nanoparticles, rather than within their interlayer galleries.⁷²

Clayff has also been shown to well reproduce ion and water adsorption and diffusional dynamics at the surfaces of several typical cementitious materials, including hydrous calcium aluminates and the C–S–H phase represented by a tobermorite

model (Figure 1d).^{43,71} Good quantitative agreement between the MD-simulated diffusion coefficients of water on the surface of tobermorite, and the hopping mechanisms of longer time scale mobility of interfacial H₂O molecules, with the values obtained for hydrated cement pastes and mortars from proton field cycling NMR spin–lattice relaxation measurements, provides strong support for the molecular scale interpretation of such experimental measurements probing the behavior of water in cement nanopores.^{76,77}

Even though classical approaches, such as Clayff, cannot model chemical reactions, they can still be successfully applied to simulate the systems at various equilibrium states, that is, before and after the reaction. Androniuk and Kalinichev⁷⁸ have recently applied this approach to develop a series of classical models for calcium silicate hydrates (C–S–H) corresponding to different Ca/Si ratios and different degrees of surface protonation, using experimental ²⁹Si MAS NMR data^{79,80} and accurate quantum chemical results⁸¹ as guidance. The models were then successfully applied to simulate adsorption of uranyl ions at the hydrated C–S–H surfaces as a function of Ca/Si ratio and solution pH, to determine the effects of organic molecules, such as gluconate, on these adsorption and complexation processes, and to interpret the experimentally observed behavior of these systems on a fundamental atomistic scale.⁷⁸

3.3. Layered Double Hydroxides. Layered double hydroxides (LDHs), also known as anionic clays, represent another important class of layered materials successfully simulated using Clayff. LDHs possess positive charge in their layers and exhibit large exchange capacities for inorganic and organic anions. They have found a great variety of applications as catalysts, bio-nanocomposites and carriers for drugs, non-viral vectors for gene therapy, media for molecular separation, environmental remediation, and many other technological purposes.^{82,83} The positive charge of LDH layers provides important contrast with the negative layer charges typical of aluminosilicate clay phases, which also makes LDHs useful in the investigations of the fundamental molecular scale structural and thermodynamic properties of hydrated anions in concentrated aqueous solutions.

Over the years, Clayff has been successfully applied to study the intercalation, hydration, and swelling of various LHD phases with many inorganic⁷⁰ and organic^{51,68} anions (Figure 1c), including amino acids,^{69,84} and even larger fragments of DNA and RNA.^{85–89}

3.4. High-Charge Clay Minerals. Clayff was originally parametrized to simulate layered minerals that are either electrostatically neutral or bear a slight negative (e.g., smectite clay minerals) or slight positive (e.g., layered double hydroxides) charge. In those cases, charge delocalization predicted by quantum chemical calculations can be adequately described by smearing the net charge ($\pm 1 e$) among the four or six oxygen atoms coordinated to the substitution site. When the total layer charge is relatively low, there is little or no overlap of these smeared charges, that is, a layer oxygen atom coordinated to two charge sites. However, Clayff has also been used to simulate layered minerals with higher permanent charge, such as muscovite, saponite, vermiculite, illite, and micas. Saponite and vermiculite are swelling minerals whose interlayers expand to accommodate a few monolayers of water. Those studies have therefore focused on interlayer properties.^{59,90} Illite and the mica class of clay minerals are non-swelling, so studies have been

limited to bulk mineral properties^{91,92} or aqueous interfaces at the external basal surface.^{47,57,93–98}

3.5. Layered Manganates. Phyllosilicate minerals, perhaps best represented by the hydrated phase birnessite, often control many geochemical processes involving trace and heavy element distribution in groundwater and in sediments. The high-cation exchange capacity of birnessite facilitates water purification. These phases are also important materials used in catalysis and battery applications. Birnessite has a general formula of $M_xMn_2O_4 \cdot nH_2O$, where M is one or more hydrated interlayer cations and Mn occurs in either the tri- or tetravalent oxidation state, typically with a mean valency of +3.75. Charge analysis of manganese atoms in a geometry-optimized Na-birnessite system from DFT calculations⁹⁹ indicates a delocalization of charge for Mn consistent with the classical models of a fully occupied Na-birnessite. However, Newton and Kwon¹⁰⁰ suggest that some biogenic birnessites with octahedral vacancies may not exhibit such delocalization of electrons due to the vacancies.

Expanded unit cells of Na-birnessite have been used to develop and dynamically equilibrate Na-birnessite, K-birnessite, and Ba-birnessite systems to assess the structure and dynamics of interlayer water.⁹⁹ Clayff parameters for these simulations included octahedral Fe parameters (feo atom type) as a proxy for octahedral Mn in the birnessite structure. The MD simulations indicate a strong correspondence of atomic contour maps of interlayer water with observed structures obtained by synchrotron X-ray diffraction and difference electron Fourier mapping of the interlayer region (Figure 4). In particular, contour maps

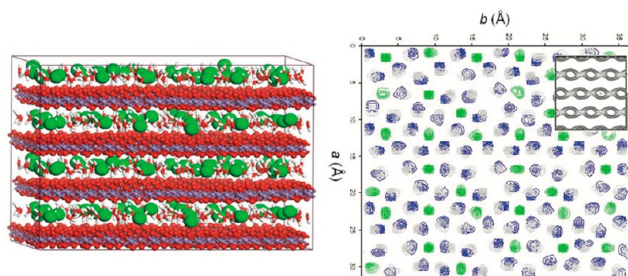


Figure 4. Simulation cell of the MD-equilibrated Na-birnessite model (left) with the corresponding density map (right) of interlayer species Na⁺ (green), water oxygen (dark blue), and water hydrogen (gray).⁹⁹ The inset shows the difference electron Fourier map obtained by synchrotron X-ray diffraction and indicating positional ordering of interlayer species. Reprinted with permission from ref 99. Copyright 2012 Mineralogical Society of America.

for K-birnessite indicate diffuse regions for much of the interlayer water consistent with the low hydration enthalpy for K⁺ compared to the other interlayer cations.

A recent molecular simulation study of birnessite utilizing Clayff potentials has demonstrated the role of interlayer Ni²⁺ as an electrocatalyst for water oxidation.¹⁰¹ Andersen and co-workers¹⁰² examined the adsorption of a small model protein on the basal surface of birnessite using MD simulations with Clayff to investigate the disruption of the protein structure in response to the birnessite surface. The modeling suggests the birnessite surface is more efficient at unraveling the α -helix and β -sheet structures of the protein compared to kaolinite or montmorillonite surfaces, perhaps leading to catalyzed oxidation or hydrolysis of the protein. Recent MD simulations^{100,103} have used modified Clayff potentials to improve the accuracy of

simulations of birnessite and related phyllosilicate structures over a range of Mn³⁺ and vacancy content. Another recent MD study¹⁰⁴ investigated the hydration of K-birnessite nanoparticles and successfully distinguished between intercalated (interlayer) water and externally adsorbed surface water.

Birnessite, and the previously discussed layered materials, demonstrate the versatility and robustness of Clayff molecular simulation to investigate materials that were not originally targeted in the early development of Clayff. More recent examples of the novel use of Clayff potentials to study a diverse range of materials and processes are illustrated in Figure 5.

3.6. Nanoporous Materials with Channels. Clayff was originally designed to simulate minerals with planar symmetry, but it has proven successful for nanoporous phases with one-dimensional (1D) or two-dimensional (2D) channels. Zeolites are cage-like aluminosilicate minerals consisting of 1D channels connected by cages (Figure 1e). The endmember siliceous zeolites do not bear a permanent charge, but substitution of aluminum ions at tetrahedral silicon sites results in a net negative charge. This charge is balanced by counterions. Charged zeolites readily adsorb water within the nanoscale cages, which hydrate the counterions much the same way that smectite clays expand in humid environments. The nanoscale size of zeolite cages combined with the presence of negative charge sites make zeolites extremely valuable materials for separation and catalysis applications.¹¹¹ Although unique force field parameters have been developed specifically for zeolites,¹¹² Clayff has also been used to model structural and dynamic properties of adsorbed species, both aqueous^{19,113} and organic.^{114,115} In another study, Bushuev and Sastre²¹ added angle bending terms to Clayff to study the role of water in forming structural defects in a siliceous zeolite. Additionally, zeolites and fibrous clays such as palygorskite and sepiolite also contain 1D channels that are ideal environments to investigate the properties of nanoconfined water using both molecular simulation and spectroscopy.^{116,117}

Clayff has also been used to simulate aluminosilicate nanotubes such as imogolite (Figure 5g) and halloysite (Figure 5h). These phases consist of TO layers similar to kaolinite, but the sheets are curved to form single walled nanotubes (imogolite) or scrolls (halloysite). The curvature of these sheets results in additional strain applied to the octahedral and tetrahedral layers, representing an acute test of Clayff parameters. Clayff has been used to study the effect of nanotube diameter on phase stability,¹¹⁸ as well as the properties of water or gases at the interior and exterior walls (Figure 5g).^{109,119–121}

3.7. Other Silicate Phases. Like clay minerals, the local structure of framework silicates (e.g., quartz, silica) and aluminosilicates (e.g., feldspars; Figure 1f) is dominated by tetrahedrally coordinated silicon and aluminum atoms. Not surprisingly, Clayff is well suited to simulate these structures and their fluid interfaces (Figure 5c). However, modifications to Clayff parameters (atomic charges and L-J parameters) or additional constraints (e.g., fixed atomic positions) are needed for atomic environments not included in the original force field. Many of these surfaces are terminated with hydroxyl groups, using the same harmonic O–H bond stretch term used for SPC water and layer hydroxyl groups. Kerisit and co-workers used Clayff to model orthoclase feldspar (KAlSi₃O₈) and forsterite (Mg₂SiO₄) and their fluid interfaces, with several modifications to Clayff for improved agreement with experimental structures.^{44,45,122} Quartz and silica phases (including amorphous silica) have also been simulated using Clayff, although some

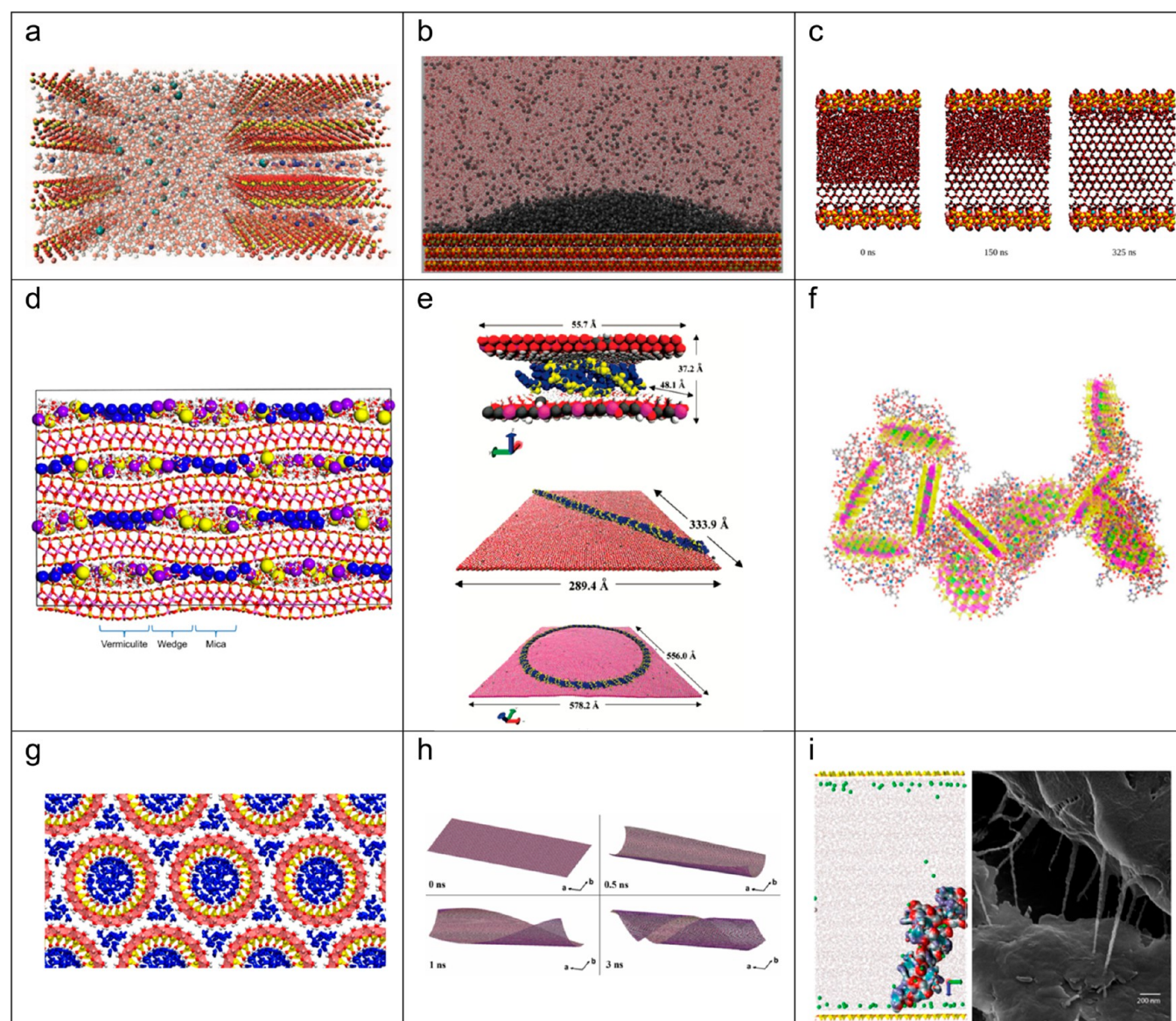


Figure 5. Selected models of layered and nanoporous phases and surfaces that have used Clayff interatomic potentials: (a) aqueous mesopore bounded by clay edges;¹⁰⁵ (b) supercritical CO₂ droplet in water on the siloxane surface of kaolinite;¹⁰⁶ (c) ice nucleation in a feldspar nanopore;¹⁰⁷ (d) transitional mica-vermiculite structure showing enhanced adsorption of cations;⁹⁰ (e) various types of DNA strands intercalated in LDH;⁸⁷ (f) hydrated aggregate of NOM and clay platelets;¹⁰⁸ (g) imogolite nanotubes saturated with water;¹⁰⁹ (h) evolution of kaolinite sheet into halloysite nanoribbon;¹¹⁰ (i) NOM aggregate adsorbed onto a smectite nanopore with a SEM image of the natural sample.³⁸ Images reprinted with permission from the cited references: (a) Copyright 2016 Clay Minerals Society; (b) Copyright 2014 American Chemical Society; (c) Copyright 2019 AIP Publishing; (d) Copyright 2015 American Chemical Society; (e) Copyright 2008 American Chemical Society; (f) Copyright 2020 Elsevier; (g) Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society; (h) Copyright 2018 Royal Chemical Society; (i) Copyright 2020 American Chemical Society.

studies fixed the coordinates of silicon and oxygen atoms while allowing surface hydrogen atoms to move freely.^{22,123–127}

3.8. Mesoscale Structures. Shortly after its introduction, MD simulation studies using Clayff for expanded interlayers began to appear in the literature.^{66,128,129} These model systems are often referred to as external surfaces or clay nanopores,^{105,130} and they serve as useful platforms to investigate the effect of fluid chemistry or pore size on adsorption and diffusion (Figures 5a and 6) and to help better understand the structure of the electric double layer (EDL). For example, Greathouse and Cygan¹²⁸ studied the effect of carbonate concentration on U(VI) adsorption onto montmorillonite surfaces, and Kerisit and Liu¹²² studied the effect of pore size on water diffusion near orthoclase surfaces. Water diffusion coefficients from Clayff

simulations have also been used in multiscale modeling of mesoscale clay structures.¹³¹ Numerous Clayff studies based on nanopore models continue to be published each year for interfaces involving basal surfaces as well as hydroxylated edge surfaces. Almost all of the silica interfacial studies discussed previously used nanopore models. In recent years, such simulation studies are arguably more prevalent than those involving bulk interlayers.

3.9. Mechanical Properties. The nonbonded nature of Clayff also facilitates its use in modeling the response of layered minerals to mechanical stimuli. Fully bonded force fields usually employ rigid harmonic bond stretch and angle bending terms, resulting in more rigid layers that are less responsive to stress and strain.^{26,132,133} The assumption of most bonded interactions in

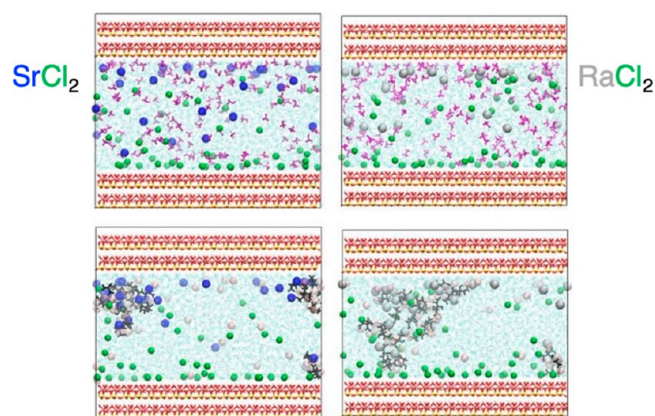


Figure 6. Snapshots of the equilibrated water-based fracturing fluids examined with methanol (top) and citric acid (bottom) additives in kaolinite mesopores, SrCl₂, and RaCl₂ salts at approximately 0.3 M concentration. Reprinted with permission from ref 67. Copyright 2018 American Chemical Society.

Clayff as quasi-ionic, using a “softer” combination of L-J interaction and electrostatic attraction, results in a more dynamic response to stress and strain. For such a simple principally nonbonded force field, Clayff gives reasonable estimates of the cleavage and surface energy of layered materials¹³⁴ but leads to less accurate estimates of elastic properties.^{20,60,135}

Rutledge and co-workers were the first to investigate the mechanical properties of montmorillonite clay minerals using Clayff, initially investigating the strain dependence on vibrational frequencies¹³⁶ and then determining elastic constants of a single clay particle (Figure 3a),⁵² as well as expanded clays.^{137,138} Coveney and co-workers used large-scale models (more than 100,000 atoms) of montmorillonite¹³⁹ and Mg–Al LDH¹⁴⁰ to calculate mechanical properties including bending moduli. More recently, similar methods have been applied to investigate mechanical properties of non-swelling clays,⁹¹ cement–graphene nanocomposites,¹⁴¹ aluminosilicate nanolayers and nanotubes,^{142,143} and clay–polymer nanocomposites.¹⁴⁴ In another application involving second-derivative properties, Clayff was recently used for atomistic simulations of the dielectric properties of swelling clays and their dependence on water saturation and frequency.¹⁴⁵

3.10. Large-Scale Molecular Simulations. Accessibility to larger and faster computational resources through massively parallel clusters and grid-exascale computing has allowed researchers to model clay mineral systems and properties that were previously considered impossible using fully atomistic simulation methods. System sizes of a few nanometers are adequate for modeling many interfacial properties such as adsorption geometries and energies, but the studies discussed below require system sizes of at least 10 nm and often simulation times of many tens of nanoseconds in order to thoroughly sample equilibrium properties. The large-scale models used by Coveney and co-workers to study the mechanical properties of clays also served to illustrate the undulatory behavior of individual clay layers.^{139,140} They used similar system sizes to model polymers and biomolecules (RNA, DNA, and proteins) intercalated in clay mineral interlayers^{85,87,88,146} (Figure 5e) and on mineral surfaces.^{86,102} Simulations used to obtain contact angles between hydrophobic (hydrophilic) fluid phases near hydrophilic (hydrophobic) mineral surfaces require system sizes

on the order of 10 nm (Figure 5b),^{18,106,147} while the temperature effects on rolling of kaolinite sheets into halloysite nanotubes have been modeled at length scales up to 200 nm (Figure 5h).¹¹⁰ More recently, individual clay particles consisting of single TOT layers¹⁴⁸ (Figure 7) or multiple TO layers¹⁴⁹ have been used to model the aggregation of these phases under different sedimentation environments.

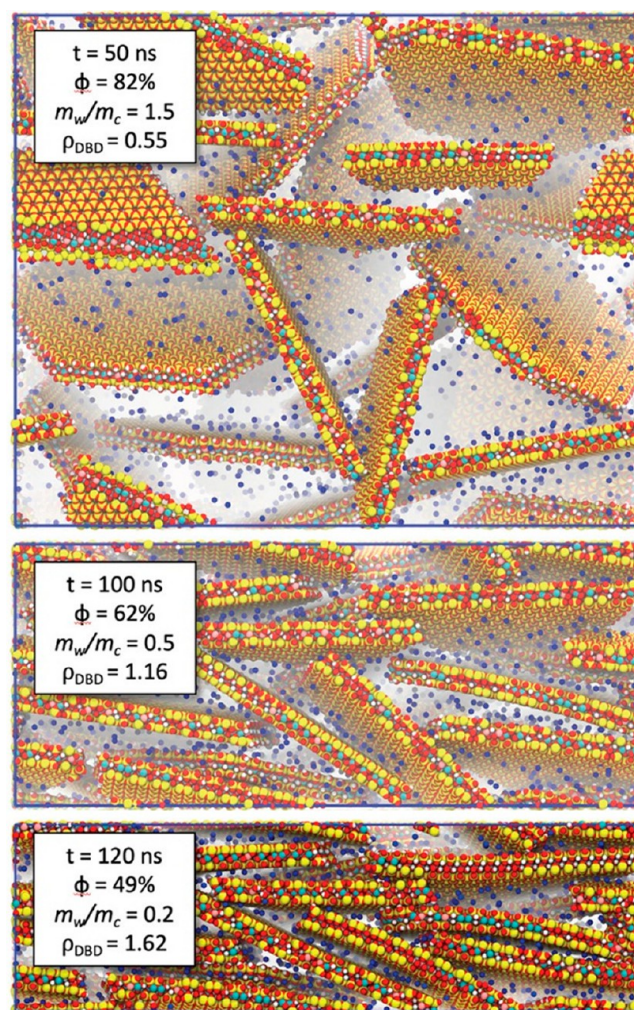


Figure 7. Snapshots of configurations predicted via MD simulation during the dehydration and compaction of a Na-montmorillonite clay suspension (water molecules not shown). The initial configuration (top) had minimal orientational correlations between clay particles, while the final structures present stacking features and correlations representative of the clay matrix. Reprinted with permission from ref 148. Copyright 2020 American Chemical Society.

4. ADVANCES IN CLAYFF

4.1. Truncated Surfaces and Edges. A systematic effort to improve Clayff parametrization is currently ongoing along two directions important in view of future application: (1) making Clayff fully compatible with more complex and more accurate models of H₂O in order to improve the accuracy of description of the structural and dynamic behavior of substrate–water interfaces and make it compatible with common force fields for organic substances;^{150,151} (2) the development of additional explicit metal–O–H bending terms (Si–O–H, Al–O–H, etc.) which facilitate the accurate description of hydroxylated

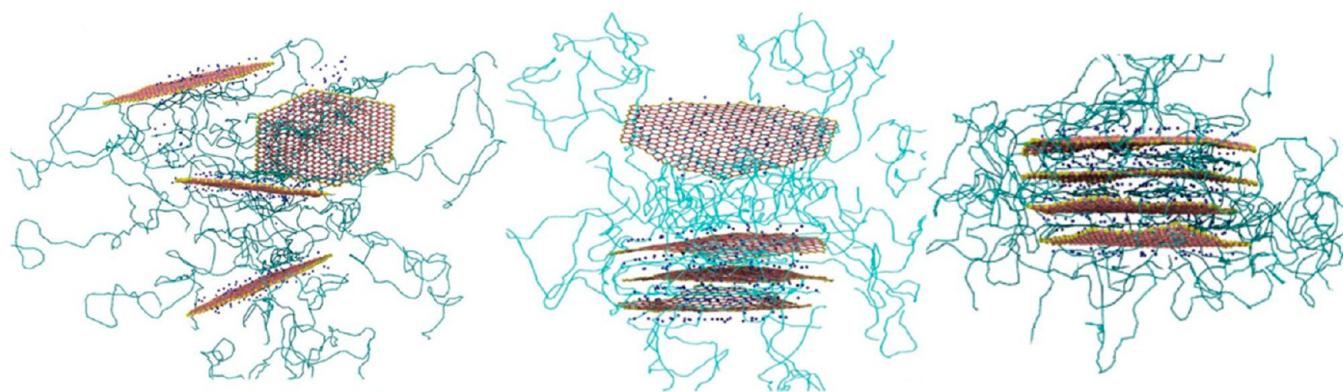


Figure 8. Snapshots from a coarse-grained MD simulation showing the intercalation of polyethylene glycol (turquoise strands) in Na-montmorillonite interlayers. Each hexagonal clay particle has lateral dimensions of approximately 100 Å. Reprinted with permission from ref 179. Copyright 2015 Wiley-VCH.

inorganic nanoparticle edges, including, for instance, the edges of C–S–H particles.^{152,153}

Molecular modeling of truncated mineral surfaces presents a unique challenge for classical force fields that do not accommodate bond breaking or forming between adsorbed species and surface sites (e.g., proton transfer). The structure and net charge of hydroxylated mineral surfaces often vary with pH, which in turn affects the properties of many mineral–fluid interfaces.^{154–156} The pH-dependent adsorption behavior of clay minerals is attributed to interactions at edge surfaces due to the presence of hydroxyl groups from the octahedral sheet or from dissociative water adsorption at unstable surface sites resulting from crystal growth or dissolution processes. Accurate modeling of such interfaces is needed to predict the adsorption and transport of important solute species in the subsurface.^{157,158}

A growing number of studies have used Clayff to model edge surfaces of clays and other layered minerals. Typical applications include the distribution of water and solute between pore fluids and interlayers,^{23,96,159–161} adsorption at edge surfaces,^{16,162–164} and the simulation of nanoparticles.^{148,149}

Once a molecular model for the desired edge surface is created, any dangling bonds must be repaired, typically by creating edge hydroxyl groups by adding –H (–OH) groups to MO– or M– sites, respectively. Unless surface atoms are simulated with fixed atomic position or restricted movement, these newly created edge hydroxyl groups must be simulated with additional intramolecular terms (bond stretch and/or angle bending) to prevent nonbonded hydroxyl groups from drifting into the fluid region. To accurately describe the O–H bond stretch in bulk clays or at hydroxylated surfaces, a Morse potential provides increased sensitivity to the local environment which is important when simulating vibrational properties. Morse O–H bond parameters have been developed to replace the SPC harmonic term for H₂O in Clayff.¹¹ However, one can still use the original SPC water harmonic term for simplicity and when the O–H bond term is not likely to affect the results (e.g., structural or transport properties at basal surfaces where layer hydroxyl groups have minimal impact on the interlayer).

Additional stability at cleaved surfaces and edges is achieved by using a three-body M–O–H angle bending term (M represents layer cations such as Al or Si). Importantly, such an angle term can be implemented while still maintaining the nonbonded pair interactions of Clayff. Parameters have been derived for cations in octahedral (Mg–O–H and Al–O–H)

and tetrahedral (Si–O–H) coordination.^{152,153,165} The new Clayff parametrization of the Al–O–H bending terms¹⁵² has been recently successfully used to accurately reproduce the complex phase-sensitive vibrational sum frequency generation spectra of water on a fully hydroxylated (0001) surface of alumina.¹⁶⁶ Zhang and co-workers¹⁰⁸ have recently used the extended potentials (Pouvreau et al., 2017) of Clayff to model the interaction of soil organic matter with basal and edge surfaces of clay nanoparticles (Figure 5f and i).

The other important consideration for newly created edge surfaces is the assignment of appropriate atomic charges. Atom types for edge hydroxyl groups were not included in the original parameter set. Three approaches have been used to assign atomic charges for neutral edge surfaces: (1) use existing Clayff charges,^{159,165} (2) assign new charges for hydroxyl groups and connecting atoms based on a bond valence approach,^{44,96} and (3) assign charges by comparing with quantum (DFT) calculations.^{163,167} In the case of octahedrally coordinated edge cations (e.g., Mg, Al), a neutral surface is obtained from original Clayff charges if one edge hydroxyl group is removed. However, physisorption of a water molecule completes the 6-fold coordination. As suggested in Figure 2, deprotonated octahedral edge sites can then be created by removing a H atom from an adsorbed water molecule and making slight adjustments, if necessary, to the hydroxyl O charge.¹⁶⁴

4.2. Interlayer and Pore Fluids. Clayff has been used to simulate the interaction of many fluid and gaseous species near basal and edge surfaces. In many instances, the bulk properties of the fluid are well described by a self-consistent set of force field parameters, but interaction parameters between fluid species and mineral surfaces have not been derived for specific fluid–surface pairs. Since many force fields also use a L–J expression to describe van der Waals interactions, parameters for specific fluid–surface interactions between unlike atom types (off-diagonal parameters) can be obtained using the standard Lorentz–Berthelot combining rules (eq 4).

Clayff was originally parametrized to be consistent with the simple point charge (SPC) water model¹⁰ using a simple harmonic approximation for the intramolecular motions.¹⁶⁸ However, later, its more accurate version SPC/E¹⁶⁹ was also successfully used.^{53,59} More complex anharmonic terms can also be used to describe the bond bending and stretching terms of the structural –O–H groups and interfacial H₂O molecules for accurate simulation and interpretation of their vibrational properties.^{11,151,165} There were also attempts to use a more

complex four-point-charge TIP4P model of H₂O¹⁷⁰ together with Clayff.^{107,171} Improved and more accurate L-J parameters for monovalent and divalent cations compatible with SPC, SPC/E, and other water models have recently been published^{172,173} and can be successfully implemented in Clayff to describe cation–water and other metal cation interactions.

Several recent studies have demonstrated a very good agreement of the 2-D and 3-D interfacial aqueous solution structures at heterogeneously charged basal and edge surfaces of clay nanoparticles simulated with Clayff with results from experimental atomic force microscopy (AFM) observations.^{174–177} These studies illustrate the value of using molecular simulations as a tool in the atomistic-scale interpretation of complex AFM results.

One of the most common applications of Clayff is the simulation of organic species near mineral surfaces. Clayff was originally developed for compatibility with the consistent valence force field (CVFF),¹⁷⁸ which also uses the flexible SPC water model. Thus, the early Clayff simulations of mineral–organic systems combined Clayff for the surface atoms and CVFF for the organic molecules. Other mineral–organic systems have included polymers^{89,138,179} and biological compounds, including constituents of amino acids and natural organic matter (Figure 5f and i).^{38,68,108} Figure 8 shows stages in the polymer intercalation process from coarse-grained MD simulation.¹⁷⁹ This multiscale modeling approach incorporates properties from quantum calculations and Clayff simulation.

Potentials for organic compounds from the OPLS force field¹⁸⁰ can also be implemented with Clayff. Geoscience applications have included interlayer CO₂¹⁸¹ and methane^{182,183} as well as methane hydrates.^{184,185} Several computational studies have investigated CO₂ and H₂O mixtures in smectite interlayers to better assess the role of carbon sequestration in mitigating climate change.^{17,186,187}

In most cases, when modeling such hybrid systems, the resulting off-diagonal L-J terms governing adsorption and other nonbonded interactions have not been explicitly validated, although comparisons between Clayff-CVFF and quantum chemical methods have been made.⁶⁵ Off-diagonal parameters have been derived for specific interfaces,^{163,188} but this involves a great deal of quantum chemical calculations and fitting. Nonetheless, when combining Clayff with other general force fields or atom types, it is important to check that both force fields use the same combining rules (eq 4). It is worth noting that Heinz and co-workers have streamlined the process of developing off-diagonal parameters for modeling organic species near silicate surfaces based on the INTERFACE force field.²⁶

Some researchers have modified Clayff parameters in order to fit experimental or DFT-calculated properties for specific minerals or interfaces. Kerisit and co-workers have made several adjustments to Clayff L-J parameters and partial charges to improve agreement with experiment for feldspar,⁴⁴ hematite,¹⁸⁹ forsterite,⁴⁵ and gibbsite.¹⁶⁷ Adjustments to the bridging oxygen (ob) L-J parameters have been made to improve agreement with X-ray diffraction data.^{59,151} Recently, Ho et al.¹⁹⁰ showed that thermodynamic properties of interlayer hydration and clay swelling are quite sensitive to the L-J parameters describing the interaction of aqueous cations with bridging oxygen atoms of the surface (ob). Adjustments to a subset of Clayff parameters are usually not checked for validity with other phases in the original training set, so they are not considered to be implicitly transferable. Recently, Findley and co-workers¹⁹¹ have successfully used Clayff as a basis for the development of a specifically

transferable force field for predicting the adsorption and diffusional mobility of hydrocarbons and small molecules in silica zeolites.

5. FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The last 30 years have seen a rapid and continuous growth in the use of computer simulation tools to investigate the molecular structure and behavior of layered materials and their interfaces that are critical to understanding the safe treatment and long-term isolation of chemical contaminants, including radionuclides, in the environment.^{157,192} The physical and chemical properties of clay minerals, in particular, suggest their significant role in controlling adsorption processes and in limiting metals and organics into natural water systems that could potentially impact the quality of drinking water. Advances in microscopy, spectroscopy, and new analytical methods have helped researchers to better evaluate the mechanisms of these complex processes; however, details derived from molecular simulations are often required to supplement these methods and, in some cases, due to the nanosized and disordered or impure nature of natural clay samples, remain the only basis for understanding such processes.

Use of the Clayff energy force field in molecular simulations of layered materials has proven to be a valuable approach in these efforts. However, there remain several unique challenges for researchers in expanding and improving the accuracy of such simulations using Clayff, or other sets of potentials. One such area is the accurate simulation of the siloxane sheet structure that comprises the basal surface of many clay minerals. Results from Clayff simulations of clay phases typically exhibit hexagonal symmetry for the ring structure of the siloxane sheet. Polarizability is not the only way to introduce asymmetry. Adding bond-angle terms and adjusting VDW sigma diameters can also induce asymmetry. Even with Al substitution for Si atoms on this sheet, as found in some smectite minerals, one would expect to reduce the symmetry of the ring to ditrigonal while collapsing the size of the ring. Cation adsorption onto the basal siloxane surface may be overestimated by the more open ring structure observed in the molecular simulations.¹⁹⁰ Incorporation of polarization terms in classical potentials, based on DFT calculations, has led to recent improvements in modeling the rotation and tilt of tetrahedra in the tetrahedral sheet of montmorillonite and in predicting the ditrigonal symmetry for the ring structure.^{32,33,193} Nonetheless, more work is needed to properly account for ionic and electronic polarization mechanisms within the framework of Clayff potentials.

Incorporating Clayff parameters in various molecular simulation codes is a straightforward process due to the nonbonded nature of the potentials. This leads to a practical and less costly approach for MD simulations that avoids having to describe bonded atom pairs that require continuous monitoring and updating during a simulation run. Although no bond between a metal and a single oxygen is explicitly defined, the Clayff interatomic potential derives a total “bond” energy in assuming the proper coordination of oxygens about the charged metal center and calculating the “bond” energy of the cluster (e.g., SiO₄, MgO₆, etc.). As long as the interatomic potentials are accurately derived from the empirical fits based on refinements of simple oxide and hydroxide crystal structures, this approach can be efficient and practical, although less analogous to defining an explicit M–O bond.

Clayff was developed using a consistent set of partial charges for each atom type in the force field. Values were initially derived from quantum chemical calculations and then adjusted accordingly to accommodate substitutional schemes and the stoichiometry of simulation cells for bulk phases and to make the entire charge distribution scheme consistent with the model for H₂O molecules and aqueous species. However, simulations involving surface species (e.g., edge sites), where metal coordination changes from that of the bulk environment, can become problematic when assigning partial charges. We have summarized some of the recent work in developing new Clayff potentials for these edge sites and recognize the difficulty in maintaining universal partial charges. Future development of Clayff for such sites may help guide further work on a partial charge scheme that could be easily applied to all surface sites and help guide improved potentials for protonation–deprotonation structures.

There are additional improvements that could be made to Clayff potentials. The original parameters for the nonbonded potential terms (i.e., ϵ and σ of the 6–12 L-J potential) could be scaled by reducing the size of the sigma terms to be consistent with physical L-J radii. In addition, it would be beneficial to practitioners to avoid combining rules when identifying L-J parameters for specific atom–atom interactions, the off-diagonal terms. This would require reporting explicit pair-interaction parameters rather than relying on diagonal terms and combining rules. Such an approach is now easier to implement with the increased use of preprocessing scripts to prepare input files. Explicit inclusion of the off-diagonal terms would also help avoid the pitfalls in using automated software to define such interactions that often confuse the user and lead to improper simulation results. Nonetheless, in part because of convention, we continue to report nonbonded potentials in terms of single atom types (diagonal format). Simulations of organic–mineral systems (e.g., clay–polymer composites) are often limited by the lack of appropriate nonbonded potentials, thereby requiring users to arbitrarily combine Clayff potentials with general organic force fields by means of various combining rules. Such an approach requires a critical eye to properly judge the worthiness of the simulation results.

Further development of Clayff should include how best to improve bonded potentials, especially for modeling metal-hydroxyl behavior in either bulk or surface structures. Our recent work has demonstrated that angle bending potentials involving metal hydroxyls need to be customized for specific hydroxyl environments.^{152,153,165} Can bulk Clayff terms be simply reparameterized for surface or interfacial structures, or do completely new potentials need to be developed? Additional development work is required to accurately model Fe–O–H and Ca–O–H potentials for clay edge environments.

Lastly, much effort has been spent by van Duin and others in the development of ReaxFF^{194,195} to explicitly incorporate chemical reaction dynamics into classical atomistic simulations. Incorporation of acid–base reactions such as the protonation and deprotonation of edge sites of clay minerals, or the reaction of interlayer species, would greatly broaden the predictive capabilities of such simulations for many environmentally complex and technologically important processes. Mapping potential reaction pathways associated with the interaction of aqueous solutions and clay minerals will involve substantial quantum chemical calculations coupled with machine learning methods to develop validated parameters for ReaxFF.^{196,197} Nonetheless, combining the reactivity of ReaxFF, or machine-

learned potentials, with Clayff potentials would significantly improve simulation accuracy and greatly expand the general application of these predictive methods.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.jpcc.1c04600>.

A short discussion of the theoretical basis of Clayff, including analytical expressions and parameters for interatomic potential parameters, is provided; nonbonded and bonded parameters are tabulated and include values for surface/edge sites; and sample input files with Clayff parameters are presented for several commonly used molecular simulation programs (PDF)

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Author Contributions

The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors. All authors have given approval to the final version of the manuscript.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

Biographies



Randall T. Cygan earned his Ph.D. in geochemistry and mineralogy in 1983 from Pennsylvania State University. He recently retired as Senior Scientist from Sandia National Laboratories where he worked for over 30 years. His research interests are varied, including investigations of

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Jeffery A. Greathouse received his Ph.D. in 1996 from the University of California at Davis, followed by postdoctoral research at the University of California at Berkeley. He is a Principal Member of Technical Staff in the Geochemistry Department at Sandia National Laboratories, and he is currently President of the Clay Minerals Society. His research involves molecular simulation of aqueous systems, mineral–water interfaces, and nanoporous materials.



Andrey G. Kalinichev received his Ph.D. in chemical physics in 1986 at the Russian Academy of Sciences, where he subsequently headed the Physical Research Laboratory at the Institute of Experimental Mineralogy in Chernogolovka. After a series of Research Professorships at the University of Illinois at Urbana–Champaign and Michigan State University, he is currently a Director of Research at the Institut Mines-Télécom Atlantique in Nantes, France, where his research group is focused on atomistic computational modeling of materials and processes related to geological disposal of radioactive waste. He also served as President (2019–2020) of the Clay Minerals Society.

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Advances in Clayff Molecular Simulation of Layered and Nanoporous Materials and their Aqueous Interfaces

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Supporting Information

Parameters for the Clayff interatomic potentials¹ are provided in Tables S1 and S2. Any differences in parameter values from the original publication are due to reporting of significant digits, roundoff errors, or corrections in transposition of digits. Energy values are presented in kcal/mol, distances in Ångstroms, and angles in degrees. Note that values for bond-angle bend force constants incorporate radian units, and conversion between degrees and radians is accommodated in the force constant value. Table S1 includes nonbonded interaction parameters using ϵ and σ convention for the Lennard-Jones (L-J) potential. The original Clayff publication reported values for L-J potentials using the alternative D_o and R_o convention where $D_o = \epsilon$ and $R_o = 2^{1/6}\sigma$.

Total potential energy of a molecular system is represented in Clayff as the summation of contributing energy components as described by Equation S1:

$$E_{Total} = E_{Coul} + E_{VDW} + E_{Bond} + \dots \quad (S1)$$

The total energy includes contributions from Coulombic, van der Waals, and bonded energy terms. Additional energy terms can be added to Equation S1 to incorporate pressure, stress,

electric fields, and other environmental variables. The potential energy for Coulombic interactions is given as:

$$E_{Coul} = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{i \neq j} \frac{q_i q_j}{r_{ij}} \quad (S2)$$

where q_i and q_j are the partial charges for atoms i and j separated by distance r_{ij} . The E_{VDW} term is often incorporated in Equation S1 as a L-J potential to represent short range interactions between atom pairs. It is presented in Equation S3 using ϵ and σ notation:

$$E_{VDW} = \sum_{i \neq j} 4\epsilon_{ij} \left[\left(\frac{\sigma_{ij}}{r_{ij}} \right)^{12} - \left(\frac{\sigma_{ij}}{r_{ij}} \right)^6 \right] \quad (S3)$$

where ϵ_{ij} is the depth of the potential well and σ_{ij} is the zero-crossing distance for the energy.

Combining rules for the L-J parameters are used to mix nonequivalent (off-diagonal) atomic interactions thereby requiring reporting of only the single (diagonal) parameters (Table S1):

$$\sigma_{ij} = \frac{\sigma_i + \sigma_j}{2} \quad \epsilon_{ij} = (\epsilon_i \epsilon_j)^{1/2} \quad (S4)$$

Clayff implements a conventional geometric mean for the energy term ϵ_{ij} and an arithmetic mean for the zero-crossing distance σ_{ij} . A Simple Point Charge (SPC) model² is used for the L-J parameters of water molecules in Clayff. Improvements in modeling water polarization using the effective pair potential of the SPC/E water model³ can be also used with Clayff potentials, however the SPC/E partial charges are not fully consistent with the charges associated with the framework oxygen atoms (see Table S1).

Table S2 presents the bonded parameters for Clayff potentials. A harmonic potential is used to describe the potential energy of -O-H bonds associated with water and hydroxyl groups:

$$E_{harmonic\ stretch} = k_1(r - r_0)^2 \quad (S5)$$

where r_o is the equilibrium bond distance. Similarly, a harmonic function is used to describe the potential energy for the bond-angle bend for water molecules and for selected metal hydroxyl groups (edges and truncated surfaces):

$$E_{harmonic\ bend} = k_2(\theta - \theta_o)^2 \quad (S6)$$

where θ_o represents the equilibrium bond angle for a three-body interaction. Full flexibility of water molecules is therefore incorporated in Clayff by use of harmonic bond stretch and bond-angle bending terms.⁴ A Morse potential has been successfully used in Clayff simulations of clay minerals involving TOT layers with dioctahedral and trioctahedral structures:

$$E_{Morse\ stretch} = D_o[1 - e^{-\alpha(r-r_o)}]^2 \quad (S7)$$

where D_o is the dissociation energy, r_o is the equilibrium bond distance, and α is an additional fitting parameter representing the width of the potential energy well. Use of a Morse potential for modeling hydroxyl groups has led to improved simulations of vibrational spectra for TOT clay minerals.⁵

Recognizing the challenge of modeling edge sites of layered phases and other complex materials, Clayff has been recently updated to accurately predict the librational motions of hydroxyl groups associated with edges and other truncated surfaces.⁶⁻⁸ Harmonic bond-angle bend terms (Equation S6) were parameterized from results of DFT-MD simulations and were optimized to accurately predict structure and power spectra. Force constants and equilibrium bond angles are presented in Table S2 for selected metal atom types associated with protonated oxygen species. Note, these bonded M-O-H parameters replace the three-body parameters published in the original Clayff potential set, which were cast in a different functional form and difficult to implement in practice. They can be implemented as special nonbonded three-body terms (*e.g.*, LAMMPS “pair style nb3b/harmonic”; Materials Studio Forcite “NON-

BONDED_3-BODY”). These M-O-H parameters can also be implemented as angle terms without associated bond terms, thereby bypassing the standard 1-3 or 1-4 bond exclusion rules. However, in this case, the angle terms continue to be evaluated even when the hydroxyl group moves away from the metal (M) during the simulation.

Clayff potentials are typically assigned as atom types in molecule models involving simulation cells with periodic boundary conditions. Some graphical-based software packages, such as Materials Studio, require molecular models be created without bonds for the metal-oxygen framework so that the nonbonded Clayff potentials are properly implemented. Water molecules and hydroxyl groups would require graphical bonds, and have corresponding bonded potentials (bond stretch and bond-angle bend) for evaluating their bond energy contributions. There are several pre- and post-processing software tools available to the user for preparing molecular models for Clayff-based simulations and for analyzing molecular structures from atomic trajectories obtained from MD simulations.⁹⁻¹¹ Many of these tools are developed by academic institutions and are customized for specific applications. An open-source MATLAB library has been recently developed by Holmboe¹² to create models of layered minerals and other phases, to assign Clayff attributes, to protonate and solvate models, and to analyze bonding and atomic structure for models from multiple simulations.

Table S1. Nonbond Parameters for the Clayff Force Field

species	symbol	charge (<i>e</i>)	ϵ (kcal/mol)	σ (Å)
SPC water hydrogen	h*	0.4100		
SPC water oxygen	o*	-0.8200	0.1554	3.1655
SPC/E water hydrogen	h*	0.4238		
SPC/E water oxygen	o*	-0.8476	0.1554	3.1655
hydroxyl hydrogen	ho	0.4250		
hydroxyl oxygen	oh	-0.9500	0.1554	3.1655
bridging oxygen	ob	-1.0500	0.1554	3.1655
bridging oxygen with octahedral substitution	obos	-1.1808	0.1554	3.1655
bridging oxygen with tetrahedral substitution	obts	-1.1688	0.1554	3.1655
bridging oxygen with double substitution	obss	-1.2996	0.1554	3.1655
hydroxyl oxygen with substitution	ohs	-1.0808	0.1554	3.1655
tetrahedral silicon	st	2.1000	1.8405×10^{-6}	3.3020
octahedral aluminum	ao	1.5750	1.3298×10^{-6}	4.2712
tetrahedral aluminum	at	1.5750	1.8405×10^{-6}	3.3020
octahedral magnesium	mgo	1.3600	9.0298×10^{-7}	5.2643
hydroxide magnesium	mgH	1.0500	9.0298×10^{-7}	5.2643
octahedral calcium	cao	1.3600	5.0298×10^{-6}	5.5667
hydroxide calcium	caH	1.0500	5.0298×10^{-6}	5.5667
octahedral iron	feo	1.5750	9.0298×10^{-7}	4.9062
octahedral lithium	lio	0.5250	9.0298×10^{-7}	4.2101
aqueous sodium ion	Na	1.0	0.1301	2.3500
aqueous potassium ion	K	1.0	0.1000	3.3340
aqueous cesium ion	Cs	1.0	0.1000	3.8310
aqueous calcium ion	Ca	2.0	0.1000	2.8720
aqueous barium ion	Ba	2.0	0.0470	3.8166
aqueous chloride ion	Cl	-1.0	0.1001	4.4000

Table S2. Bond Parameters for the Clayff Force Field

harmonic bond stretch				k_1	r_o	
	species i	species j		(kcal/mol Å ²)	(Å)	
SPC	o*	h*		554.1349	1.0000	
SPC/E	o*	h*		554.1349	1.0000	
	oh	ho		554.1349	1.0000	
	ohs	ho		554.1349	1.0000	
harmonic bond-angle bend				k_2	θ_o	
	species i	species j	species k	(kcal/mol rad ²)	(deg)	
SPC	h*	o*	h*	45.7696	109.47	
SPC/E	h*	o*	h*	45.7696	109.47	
Morse bond stretch				D_o	α	r_o
	species i	species j		(kcal/mol)	(Å ⁻¹)	(Å)
dioctahedral	oh	ho		132.2491	2.1815	0.9450
trioctahedral	oh	ho		132.2491	2.1350	0.9572
M-O-H harmonic bond-angle bend				k_2	θ_o	
	species i	species j	species k	(kcal/mol rad ²)	(deg)	
	st	oh	ho	15.0	100.0	
bulk	ao	oh	ho	15.0	116.0	
surface	ao	oh	ho	15.0	110.0	
bulk	mgo	oh	ho	6.0	120.0	
surface	mgo	oh	ho	6.0	110.0	

SAMPLE CLAYFF INPUT FILES

Several sample program input files incorporating Clayff parameters are provided below to assist the user in implementing Clayff in commonly-used classical mechanics and molecular simulation software packages. The software programs include LAMMPS, GROMACS, and Materials Studio modules Forcite and Discover. Please note the following:

- Other ion-water parameters¹³⁻¹⁶ in the LJ 6-12 format could be used in place of (or in addition to) the VDW parameters provided in the original Clayff set. Off-diagonal parameters for ion-mineral interactions can then be derived using the appropriate mixing rules.
- Some software packages have options for automated assignment of atom types (partial charges, L-J parameters). These parameter assignments should always be checked since the algorithms may not be appropriate for all model systems.

- There may be subtle differences in parameter values between the sample input files for these codes and those provided in Tables S1 and S2. Often such input files are recreated as restart files during program execution and often include extraneous significant digits for the Clayff parameters.
- Nothing is guaranteed in these examples, and the software user is reminded to consult the original publications (including this review article) and the software manuals to ensure that parameter choices and program options are appropriately implemented for the technical problem at hand.

Clayff for LAMMPS

LAMMPS

Pair Coeffs # lj/cut/coul/long

1	0.0000018402	3.3019566252	# st tetrahedral Si	2.1
2	0.0000013297	4.2713219316	# ao octahedral Al	1.575
3	0.0000018402	3.3019566252	# at tetrahedral Al	1.575
4	0.0000009030	5.2643258688	# mgo octahedral Mg	1.36
5	0.0000009030	5.2643258688	# mgh hydroxide Mg	1.05
6	0.0000050301	5.5666638636	# cao octahedral Ca	1.36
7	0.0000050219	5.5624343529	# cah hydroxide Ca	1.05
8	0.0000009030	4.9057651456	# feo octahedral Fe	1.575
9	0.0000009030	4.2105948665	# lio octahedral Li	0.525
10	0.1554164124	3.1655200879	# ob bridging oxygen	-1.05
11	0.1554164124	3.1655200879	# obss oxygen double sub.	-1.2996
12	0.1554164124	3.1655200879	# obts oxygen tet. sub.	-1.1688
13	0.1554164124	3.1655200879	# obos oxygen oct. sub.	-1.1808
14	0.1554164124	3.1655200879	# ohs hydroxyl O sub.	-1.0808
15	0.1554164124	3.1655200879	# oh hydroxyl O	-0.95
16	0.1554164124	3.1655200879	# o* spc water O	-0.82
17	0.0000000000	0.0000000000	# ho hydroxyl H	0.425
18	0.0000000000	0.0000000000	# h* spc water H	0.41
19	0.1300999871	2.3500126639	# Na sodium ion	1.0
20	0.1000015417	3.3340059879	# K potassium ion	1.0
21	0.1000007161	3.8310403819	# Cs cesium ion	1.0
22	0.0999999980	2.8719902024	# Ca calcium ion	2.0
23	0.0470957194	3.8166120025	# Ba barium ion	2.0
27	0.1000998933	4.3999709805	# Cl chloride ion	-1.0

Bond Coeffs # harmonic

1	553.935	1.0000	# o*-h*
2	553.935	1.0000	# oh-ho
3	553.935	1.0000	# ohs-ho

Bond Coeffs # morse

1	132.2491	2.1815	0.9450	# oh-ho or ohs for dioctahedral clays
2	132.2491	2.1350	0.9572	# oh-ho or ohs for trioctahedral clays

Angle Coeffs # harmonic

1	45.753	109.47 # h*-o*-h*
2	15.000	110.00 # ao-oh ho or ao-ohs-ho for surface hydroxyls
3	15.000	116.00 # ao-oh ho or ao-ohs-ho for bulk hydroxyls
4	6.000	110.00 # mgo-oh ho or ao-ohs-ho for surface hydroxyls
5	6.000	120.00 # mgo-oh ho or ao-ohs-ho for bulk hydroxyls
6	15.000	100.00 # st-oh ho or st-ohs-ho for bulk or surface hydroxyls

Clayff for Materials Studio Forcite

```

VERSION 3.1.02
CERIUS2 1
END
#
HEADER
END
#
PREFERENCES
BONDS T
ANGLES T
COULOMB T
INVERSIONS F
TORSIONS T
UREY_BRADLEY F
STRETCH_STRETCH F
SEPARATED_STRETCH_STRETCH F
STRETCH_BEND_STRETCH F
BEND_BEND F
TORSION_STRETCH F
TORSION_BEND_BEND F
BEND_TORSION_BEND F
STRETCH_TORSION_STRETCH F
HYDROGEN_BONDS F
DIAGONAL_VAN_DER_WAALS T
OFF_DIAGONAL_VAN_DER_WAALS T
IGNORE_UNDEFINED_TERMS T
NON-BONDED_3-BODY F
SHRINK_CH_BONDS F
SHRINK_CH_H_ATOM H_C
SHRINK_CH_FACTOR 0.91500
SINGLE_TORSION F
SCALE_TORSIONS_ABOUT_COMMON_BOND F
SCALE_BY_N_DEFINED_TORSIONS T
EXOCYCLIC_TORSIONS_SCALE_FACTOR 0.40000
SINGLE_INVERSION F
H-BOND_METHOD SPLINE
H-BOND_LIST T
H-BOND_DIRECT_RCUT 4.00000
H-BOND_SPLINE_DISTANCE_ON 4.00000
H-BOND_SPLINE_DISTANCE_OFF 4.50000
H-BOND_SPLINE_ANGLE_ON 65.00000
H-BOND_SPLINE_ANGLE_OFF 75.00000
H-BOND_LIST_DISTANCE_OFF 6.50000
H-BOND_LIST_ANGLE_OFF 90.00000
NB_NEIGHBOUR_SEARCH_METHOD LIST
NON_BOND_BUFFER_DISTANCE 2.00000
H-BOND_BUFFER_DISTANCE 2.00000
COU_DIELECTRIC_CONSTANT 1.00000000000000000000
COU_INTER_CUT_OFF 8.00000
COU_SPLINE_OFF 8.50000
COU_SPLINE_ON 8.00000
EWALD_SUM_COU_ACCURACY 0.00100
EWALD_SUM_COU_ETA 3.20600
EWALD_SUM_COU_KCUT 0.40900
EWALD_SUM_COU_RCUT 10.85000
EWALD_SUM_COU_OPTIMIZE SMART
COU_EXCLUDE_1-2 T
COU_EXCLUDE_1-3 T
COU_EXCLUDE_1-4 F
COU_1-4_SCALE_FACTOR 1.00000

```

```

COU_METHOD                EWALD
COU_DIRECT_CUT-OFF        8.00000
VDW_COMBINATION_RULE      ARITHMETIC
VDW_INTER_CUT_OFF         8.00000
VDW_EXCLUDE_1-2           T
VDW_EXCLUDE_1-3           T
VDW_EXCLUDE_1-4           F
VDW_1-4_SCALE_FACTOR      1.00000
VDW_METHOD                 SPLINE
VDW_SPLINE_ON              8.00000
VDW_SPLINE_OFF            8.50000
EWALD_SUM_VDW_OPTIMIZE    SMART
EWALD_SUM_VDW_ACCURACY    0.00100
EWALD_SUM_VDW_ETA         1.98000
EWALD_SUM_VDW_KCUT        0.56000
EWALD_SUM_VDW_RCUT        5.50000
EWALD_SUM_VDW_REP_CUT     6.40000
FAST_EWALD_SUM_RATIO      10.00000
SLOW_EWALD_SUM_RATIO      5.00000
MINIMUM_IMAGE             F
ASSIGN_MASS                F
ASSIGN_CHARGE              F
ASSIGN_HYBRIDIZATION      F
ASSIGN_VALBOND_CENTER     F
ATOM_TYPE                  F
ATOM_TYPE_ALL              T
CALCULATE_BOND_ORDER      F
END
#
ATOMTYPES
h*      H      1.00790  0.4100  1  0  0  ! spc water H
ho      H      1.00794  0.4250  1  0  0  ! hydroxyl H
o*      O      15.99940 -0.8200  3  0  0  ! spc water O
oh      O      15.99940 -0.9500  3  0  0  ! hydroxyl O
ob      O      15.99940 -1.0500  3  0  0  ! bridging oxygen
st      Si     28.08550  2.1000  3  0  0  ! tetrahedral Si
ao      Al     26.98154  1.5750  6  0  0  ! octahedral Al
at      Al     26.98154  1.5750  3  0  0  ! tetrahedral Al
mgo     Mg     24.30500  1.3600  3  0  0  ! octahedral Mg
cao     Ca     40.08000  1.3600  6  0  0  ! octahedral Ca
feo     Fe     55.84700  1.5750  6  0  0  ! octahedral Fe
lio     Li     6.94000   0.5250  0  0  0  ! octahedral Li
obss    O      15.99940 -1.2996  2  0  0  ! oxygen double sub.
obts    O      15.99940 -1.1688  2  0  0  ! oxygen tet. sub.
obos    O      15.99940 -1.1808  2  0  0  ! oxygen oct. sub.
ohs     O      15.99940 -1.0808  2  0  0  ! hydroxyl O sub.
cah     Ca     40.08000  1.0500  6  0  0  ! hydroxide Ca
mgh     Mg     24.30500  1.0500  3  0  0  ! hydroxide Mg
Na      Na     22.98977   1.0000  7  0  0  ! sodium ion
K       K      39.09830   1.0000  0  0  0  ! potassium ion
Cs      Cs     132.90546   1.0000  0  0  0  ! cesium ion
Ca      Ca     40.08000  2.0000  6  0  0  ! calcium ion
Ba      Ba     137.33000  2.0000  7  0  0  ! barium ion
Cl      Cl     35.45270  -1.0000  0  0  0  ! chloride ion
END
#
DIAGONAL_VDW
h*      IGNORE          4.577499866485596
ho      IGNORE          4.577499866485596
o*      LJ_6_12         3.553200006484985      0.1553999930620193
oh      LJ_6_12         3.553200006484985      0.1553999930620193
ob      LJ_6_12         3.553200006484985      0.1553999930620193
st      LJ_6_12         3.706350088119507      0.1840499976424326E-05
ao      LJ_6_12         4.794320106506348      0.1329800056737440E-05
at      LJ_6_12         3.706350088119507      0.1840499976424326E-05
mgo     LJ_6_12         5.909016132354736      0.9029800480675476E-06
cao     LJ_6_12         6.248403072357178      0.5029799922340317E-05
feo     LJ_6_12         5.507011890411377      0.9029800480675476E-06
lio     LJ_6_12         4.725677013397217      0.9029799912241288E-06
obss    LJ_6_12         3.553200006484985      0.1553999930620193
obts    LJ_6_12         3.553200006484985      0.1553999930620193
obos    LJ_6_12         3.553200006484985      0.1553999930620193
ohs     LJ_6_12         3.553200006484985      0.1553999930620193

```

cah	LJ_6_12	6.242803096771240	0.5029799922340317E-05
mgH	LJ_6_12	5.909016132354736	0.9029799912241288E-06
Na	LJ_6_12	2.637800011444092	0.1300999969244003
K	LJ_6_12	3.7423000000000000	0.1000000000000000
Cs	LJ_6_12	4.3002000000000000	0.1000000000000000
Ca	LJ_6_12	3.2237000000000000	0.1000000000000000
Ba	LJ_6_12	4.2840000000000000	0.0470960000000000
Cl	LJ_6_12	4.9388000000000000	0.1001000001692772

END

#

ATOM_TYPING_RULES

h*	H	0	0	1	1
	O	1	0	1	1
	H	0	0	1	1
	**	0	0	0	-1
o*	O	0	0	2	1
	H	0	0	0	1
	H	0	0	0	1
ob	O	0	0	1	1
	H	0	0	0	-1
st	Si	3	0	1	1
	O	0	0	0	1
ao	Al	6	0	1	1
	O	0	0	0	1
at	Al	3	0	1	1
	O	0	0	0	1
Na	Na	0	0	0	1
K	K	0	0	0	1
Cs	Cs	0	0	0	1
Ca	Ca	0	0	0	1
Ba	Ba	0	0	0	1
Cl	Cl	0	0	0	1
Mg	Mg	0	0	0	1
mgo	Mg	0	0	0	1
cao	Ca	0	0	0	1
feo	Fe	6	0	0	1
lio	Li	6	0	0	1
oh	O	0	0	3	1
	H	0	0	0	1
	**	6	0	0	1
	**	6	0	0	1
ho	H	0	0	1	1
	O	0	0	1	1
	**	6	0	0	1
ohs	O	0	0	2	1
	H	0	0	0	1
	Mg	6	0	0	1
obts	O	0	0	2	1
	Al	3	0	0	1
	**	0	0	0	1
obos	O	0	0	2	1
	Al	6	0	0	1
	Mg	6	0	0	1
obss	O	0	0	3	1
	Al	3	0	0	1
	Mg	6	0	0	1
	**	6	0	0	1
cah	Ca	6	0	1	1
	O	0	0	1	1
	Ca	6	0	0	1
mgH	Mg	6	0	1	1
	O	0	0	1	1
	Mg	6	0	0	1

END

#

#

OFF_DIAGONAL_VDW

END

#

BOND_STRETCH

o*	h*	HARMONIC	1108.2697	1.0000
oh	ho	HARMONIC	1108.2697	1.0000
ohs	ho	HARMONIC	1108.2697	1.0000

```

oh      ho      MORSE      132.2491  2.1815 0.9450 0.00000 ! oh-ho or ohs for
dioctahedral clays
ohs     ho      MORSE      132.2491  2.1350 0.9572 0.00000 ! oh-ho or ohs for
trioctahedral clays
END
#
ANGLE_BEND
h*      o*      h*      THETA_HARM  91.5392 109.4700
END
#
#
NON-BONDED_3-BODY
ao      oh      ho      HARMONIC    30.0000 110.00 ! surface hydroxyls
ao      ohs     ho      HARMONIC    30.0000 110.00 ! surface hydroxyls
ao      oh      ho      HARMONIC    30.0000 116.00 ! bulk hydroxyls
ao      ohs     ho      HARMONIC    30.0000 116.00 ! bulk hydroxyls
mgo     oh      ho      HARMONIC    12.0000 110.00 ! surface hydroxyls
mgo     ohs     ho      HARMONIC    12.0000 110.00 ! surface hydroxyls
mgo     oh      ho      HARMONIC    12.0000 120.00 ! bulk hydroxyls
mgo     ohs     ho      HARMONIC    12.0000 120.00 ! bulk hydroxyls
st      oh      ho      HARMONIC    30.0000 100.00 ! bulk or surface hydroxyls
st      ohs     ho      HARMONIC    30.0000 100.00 ! bulk or surface hydroxyls
END
#
COULOMBIC
X      X      CONST-EPS
END

```

Clayff for Materials Studio Discover

! Discover .frc

#atom_types

!Ver	Ref	Type	Mass	Element	Connections	Description and charge
1.0	--	st	28.08550	Si	4	tetrahedral silicon 2.1
1.0	--	ao	26.98154	Al	6	octahedral aluminum 1.575
1.0	--	at	26.98154	Al	4	tetrahedral aluminum 1.575
1.0	--	mgo	24.30500	Mg	6	octahedral magnesium 1.36
1.0	--	mgh	24.30500	Mg	6	hydroxide magnesium 1.05
1.0	--	cao	40.08000	Ca	6	octahedral calcium 1.36
1.0	--	cah	40.08000	Ca	6	hydroxide calcium 1.05
1.0	--	feo	55.84700	Fe	6	octahedral iron 1.575
1.0	--	lio	6.941000	Li	6	octahedral lithium 0.525
1.0	--	ob	15.99940	O	2	bridging oxygen -1.05
1.0	--	obss	15.99940	O	3	oxygen double sub. -1.2996
1.0	--	obts	15.99940	O	2	oxygen tet. sub. -1.1688
1.0	--	obos	15.99940	O	2	oxygen oct. sub. -1.1808
1.0	--	ohs	15.99940	O	2	hydroxyl O sub. -1.0808
1.0	--	oh	15.99940	O	2	hydroxyl O -0.95
1.0	--	o*	15.99940	O	2	spc water O -0.82
1.0	--	ho	1.007970	H	1	hydroxyl H 0.425
1.0	--	h*	1.007970	H	1	spc water H 0.41
1.0	--	Na	22.99000	Na	0	sodium ion 1.0
1.0	--	K	39.10	K	0	potassium ion 1.0
1.0	--	Cs	132.9100	Cs	0	cesium ion 1.0
1.0	--	Ca	40.07980	Ca	0	calcium ion 2.0
1.0	--	Ba	137.3300	Ba	0	barium ion 2.0
1.0	--	Cl	35.45300	Cl	0	chloride ion -1.0

#quadratic_bond

> E = K2 * (R - R0)^2

!Ver	Ref	I	J	R0	K2
1.0	--	o*	h*	1.0000	553.9350
1.0	--	oh	ho	1.0000	553.9350

```
1.0 -- ohs ho 1.0000 553.9350
```

```
#morse_bond
```

```
> E = D * (1 - exp(-ALPHA*(R - R0)))^2
```

!Ver	Ref	I	J	R0	D	ALPHA
1.0	--	oh	ho	0.9450	132.2491	2.1815
1.0	--	ohs	ho	0.9572	132.2491	2.1350

```
#quadratic_angle
```

```
> E = K2 * (Theta - Theta0)^2
```

!Ver	Ref	I	J	K	Theta0	K2	
1.0	1	h*	o*	h*	109.4700	45.7530	
1.0	1	ao	oh	ho	110.0	15.0	! surface hydroxyls
1.0	1	ao	ohs	ho	110.0	15.0	! surface hydroxyls
1.0	1	ao	oh	ho	116.0	15.0	! bulk hydroxyls
1.0	1	ao	oh	ho	116.0	15.0	! bulk hydroxyls
1.0	1	mgo	oh	ho	110.0	12.0	! surface hydroxyls
1.0	1	mgo	ohs	ho	110.0	12.0	! surface hydroxyls
1.0	1	mgo	oh	ho	120.0	12.0	! bulk hydroxyls
1.0	1	mgo	oh	ho	120.0	12.0	! bulk hydroxyls
1.0	1	st	oh	ho	100.0	15.0	! surface or bulk hydroxyls
1.0	1	st	ohs	ho	100.0	15.0	! surface or bulk hydroxyls

```
#nonbond(12-6)
```

```
@type A-B
```

```
@combination geometric
```

```
> E = Aij/r^12 - Bij/r^6
```

```
> where Aij = sqrt( Ai * Aj )
```

```
> Bij = sqrt( Bi * Bj )
```

!Ver	Ref	I	A	B
1.0	1	st	12.3645	0.00954
1.0	1	ao	196.1446	0.03230
1.0	1	at	12.3645	0.00954
1.0	1	mgo	1636.3265	0.07688
1.0	1	mgh	1636.3265	0.07688
1.0	1	cao	17814.73	0.5987
1.0	1	cah	17624.076	0.595
1.0	1	feo	702.54	0.0504
1.0	1	lio	112.01	0.0201
1.0	1	ob	629358.0000	625.50000
1.0	1	obss	629358.0000	625.50000
1.0	1	obts	629358.0000	625.50000
1.0	1	obos	629358.0000	625.50000
1.0	1	ohs	629358.0000	625.50000
1.0	1	oh	629358.0000	625.50000
1.0	1	o*	629358.0000	625.50000
1.0	1	ho	0.00000001	0.00000
1.0	1	h*	0.00000001	0.00000
1.0	1	Na	14763.1719	87.65132
1.0	1	K	754506.86	549.37
1.0	1	Cs	3998193.96	1264.63
1.0	1	Ca	125966.6068	224.46969
1.0	1	Ba	1799606.56	582.25
1.0	1	Cl	21081006.97	2905.31

Clayff for GROMACS

forcefield.itp

```
#define _ClayFF
;[ defaults ]
; nbfunc      comb-rule      gen-pairs      fudgeLJ fudgeQQ
;1            2              yes             1.0      1.0
#include "./ffnonbonded.itp"
#include "./ions.itp"
```

ffclayff.atp

```
hw 1.008      ; water hydrogen
ho 1.008      ; hydroxyl hydrogen
ow 16.00      ; water hydrogen
oh 16.00      ; hydroxyl oxygen
ob 16.00      ; bridging oxygen
obos 16.00    ; bridging oxygen with octahedral substitution
obts 16.00    ; bridging oxygen with tetrahedral substitution
obss 16.00    ; bridging oxygen with double substitution
ohs 16.00     ; hydroxyl oxygen with substitution
st 28.09      ; tetrahedral silicon
ao 26.98      ; octahedral aluminum
at 26.98      ; tetrahedral aluminum
mgo 24.31     ; octahedral magnesium
mgh 24.31     ; hydroxide magnesium
cao 40.08     ; octahedral calcium
cah 40.08     ; hydroxide calcium
feo 55.85     ; octahedral iron
lio 6.941     ; octahedral lithium
Na 22.99      ; aqueous sodium ion
K 39.10       ; aqueous potassium ion
Cs 132.9      ; aqueous cesium ion
Ca 40.08      ; aqueous calcium ion
Ba 137.3      ; aqueous barium ion
Cl 35.45      ; aqueous chloride ion
```

ffnonbonded.itp

```
[ atomtypes ]
; atom descriptions and masses are assigned in ffclayff.atp
; name at.numb.mass charge ptype sigma epsilon
Hw 1 1.008 0.4100 A 0.0 0.0
ho 1 1.008 0.4250 A 0.0 0.0
ow 8 16.000 -0.8200 A 3.1655E-01 6.502E-01
oh 8 16.000 -0.9500 A 3.1655E-01 6.502E-01
ob 8 16.000 -1.0500 A 3.1655E-01 6.502E-01
obos 8 16.000 -1.1808 A 3.1655E-01 6.502E-01
obts 8 16.000 -1.1688 A 3.1655E-01 6.502E-01
obss 8 16.000 -1.2996 A 3.1655E-01 6.502E-01
ohs 8 16.000 -1.0808 A 3.1655E-01 6.502E-01
st 16 28.090 2.1000 A 3.3020E-01 7.701E-06
ao 13 26.980 1.5750 A 4.2712E-01 5.564E-06
at 13 26.980 1.5750 A 3.3020E-01 7.701E-06
mgo 12 24.310 1.3600 A 5.2643E-01 3.778E-06
mgh 12 24.310 1.0500 A 5.2643E-01 3.778E-06
cao 20 40.080 1.3600 A 5.5667E-01 2.104E-05
cah 20 40.080 1.0500 A 5.5617E-01 2.104E-05
feo 26 55.850 1.5750 A 4.9062E-01 3.778E-06
lio 3 6.941 0.5250 A 4.2101E-01 3.778E-06
Na 11 22.990 1.0000 A 2.3500E-01 5.443E-01
k 19 39.100 1.0000 A 3.3340E-01 4.184E-01
Cs 55 132.900 1.0000 A 3.8310E-01 4.184E-01
Ca 20 40.080 2.0000 A 2.8720E-01 4.184E-01
Ba 56 137.300 2.0000 A 3.8166E-01 1.966E-01
Cl 17 34.450 -1.0000 A 4.4000E-01 4.188E-01
```

ffbonded.itp

```
; Bond type code
; when converting from ClayFF to Gromacs use lcal - 4.186 J
; also need to multiply k by 2
;
#define oh      0.1  463532.8
; hydroxil bond
;
#define ohs     0.1  463532.8
; hydroxil bond with substitution
;
#define ohw     0.1  463532.8
; water bond
;
;
;for konversion use 1 kcal/mol A^2 = 418.6 kJ/mol nm^2
;also multiply by 2
;
; Bond-angle type code
;
#define hoh     109.47  383.0
; water angle
;
#define moh     109.47  251.2
; metal-oh
;
```

spc.itp

```
[ moleculetype ]
; molname      nrexcl
SOL            2

[ atoms ]
; nr  type  resnr residue  atom  cgnr  charge  mass
; 1   OW    1     SOL     OW    1     -0.82
; 2   HW    1     SOL     HW1   1     0.41
; 3   HW    1     SOL     HW2   1     0.41

#ifndef FLEXIBLE
[ settles ]
; OW  funct  doh    dhh
1    1      0.1   0.16330

[ exclusions ]
1    2      3
2    1      3
3    1      2
#else
[ bonds ]
; i   j      funct  length  force.c.
1    2      1      0.1     345000  0.1     345000
1    3      1      0.1     345000  0.1     345000

[ angles ]
; i   j      k      funct  angle  force.c.
2    1      3      1      109.47 383    109.47 383
#endif
```

ions.itp

```
[ moleculetype ]
; molName      nrexcl
k              1

[ atoms ]
; id  at type res nr  residu Name  at Name  cg nr  charge
1    k    1     1    k          k        1     1

[ moleculetype ]
```

```

; molName  nrexcl
Na          1

[ atoms ]
; id      at type res nr  residu Name at Name  cg nr  charge
1         Na   1      1   Na         Na     1     1

[ moleculetype ]
; molName  nrexcl
Ca          1

[ atoms ]
; id      at type res nr  residu Name at Name  cg nr  charge
1         Ca   1      1   Ca         Ca     1     2

[ moleculetype ]
; molName  nrexcl
Cl          1

[ atoms ]
; id      at type res nr  residu Name at Name  cg nr  charge
1         Cl   1      1   Cl         Cl     1    -1

[ moleculetype ]
; molName  nrexcl
Cs          1

[ atoms ]
; id      at type res nr  residu Name at Name  cg nr  charge
1         Cs   1      1   Cs         Cs     1     1

```

ffMontUC.itp

```

[ moleculetype ]
; name      nrexcl
MON         1

[ atoms ]
; nr      type  resnr residue  atom  cgnr      charge      mass  typeB  chargeB  massB
; residue 1 MON rtp MON  q  0.0
1         ho    1      MON   HO1    1         0.425      1.008  ; qtot 0.425
2         ho    1      MON   HO2    2         0.425      1.008  ; qtot 0.85
3         ho    1      MON   HO3    3         0.425      1.008  ; qtot 1.275
4         ho    1      MON   HO4    4         0.425      1.008  ; qtot 1.7
5         ohs   1      MON   OHS1   5        -1.0808    16     ; qtot 0.6192
6         ohs   1      MON   OHS2   6        -1.0808    16     ; qtot -0.4616
7         oh    1      MON   OH1    7         -0.95      16     ; qtot -1.412
8         oh    1      MON   OH2    8         -0.95      16     ; qtot -2.362
9         obos  1      MON   OBS1   9        -1.1808    16     ; qtot -3.542
10        obos  1      MON   OBS2  10        -1.1808    16     ; qtot -4.723
11        ob   1      MON   OB1    11        -1.05      16     ; qtot -5.773
12        obos  1      MON   OBS3  12        -1.1808    16     ; qtot -6.954
13        obos  1      MON   OBS4  13        -1.1808    16     ; qtot -8.135
14        ob   1      MON   OB2    14        -1.05      16     ; qtot -9.185
15        ob   1      MON   OB3    15        -1.05      16     ; qtot -10.23
16        ob   1      MON   OB4    16        -1.05      16     ; qtot -11.28
17        ob   1      MON   OB5    17        -1.05      16     ; qtot -12.33
18        ob   1      MON   OB6    18        -1.05      16     ; qtot -13.38
19        ob   1      MON   OB7    19        -1.05      16     ; qtot -14.43
20        ob   1      MON   OB8    20        -1.05      16     ; qtot -15.48
21        ob   1      MON   OB9    21        -1.05      16     ; qtot -16.53
22        ob   1      MON   OB10   22        -1.05      16     ; qtot -17.58
23        ob   1      MON   OB11   23        -1.05      16     ; qtot -18.63
24        ob   1      MON   OB12   24        -1.05      16     ; qtot -19.68
25        ob   1      MON   OB13   25        -1.05      16     ; qtot -20.73
26        ob   1      MON   OB14   26        -1.05      16     ; qtot -21.78
27        ob   1      MON   OB15   27        -1.05      16     ; qtot -22.83
28        ob   1      MON   OB16   28        -1.05      16     ; qtot -23.88
29        mgo   1      MON   MGO1   29         1.3598     24.31  ; qtot -22.52
30        ao    1      MON   AO1    30         1.575      26.98  ; qtot -20.95
31        ao    1      MON   AO2    31         1.575      26.98  ; qtot -19.37
32        ao    1      MON   AO3    32         1.575      26.98  ; qtot -17.8

```


33	st	1	MON	ST1	33	2.1	28.09	; qtot -15.7
34	st	1	MON	ST2	34	2.1	28.09	; qtot -13.6
35	st	1	MON	ST3	35	2.1	28.09	; qtot -11.5
36	st	1	MON	ST4	36	2.1	28.09	; qtot -9.4
37	st	1	MON	ST5	37	2.1	28.09	; qtot -7.3
38	st	1	MON	ST6	38	2.1	28.09	; qtot -5.2
39	st	1	MON	ST7	39	2.1	28.09	; qtot -3.1
40	st	1	MON	ST8	40	2.1	28.09	; qtot -1

```
[ bonds ]
; i      j      funct  length  force.c.
1       5       1       0.1     463532.808
2       6       1       0.1     463532.808
3       7       1       0.1     463532.808
4       8       1       0.1     463532.808
```

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